

"Fragments of Samian ware, bronze dishes (one with Roman letters), harp-shaped fibulæ of peculiar type, together with a large assortment of beads, bronze and bone pins, bone combs, jet ornaments, &c., are so similar to the class of remains found on the excavated sites of Romano-British towns, that there can hardly be any doubt that Roman civilisation had come in contact with the lake-dwellers and partially moulded their habits. The Celtic element is, however, strongly developed, not only in the general character of many of the industrial implements of stone, bone, and iron, but also in the style of art manifested in some of the ornamental objects included in the collection."

We confess that we are disposed to doubt whether the geographical distribution of the Scottish lake dwellings at present known is really connected with that of the ancient Celt, and whether it is not more due to the activity of the Ayrshire and Wigtonshire Archæological Association, of Mr. Cochran Patrick, M.P., and of Dr. Munro himself. Whilst thanking him for what he has already accomplished, we may express a hope that he will continue his researches.

JOHN LUBBOCK

OUR BOOK SHELF

The Sportsman's Handbook to Practical Collecting, Preserving, and Artistic Setting up of Trophies and Specimens. To which is added a Synoptical Guide to the Hunting Grounds of the World. By Rowland Ward, F.Z.S. Second Edition. With numerous additional Illustrations. (London: the Author, and Simpkin, Marshall, and Co., 1882).

THIS very useful little book affords all requisite information for the traveller who wishes to preserve specimens of natural history, more especially large animals. The process of skinning quadrupeds and birds is so well explained, and so copiously illustrated by characteristic woodcuts, that the merest tyro would soon learn the art. The best modes of preserving reptiles, fishes, and insects are also given; and then follow instructions for the setting up of trophies, for mounting birds and fishes, and for dressing skins of large animals. A sketch of the chief hunting-fields of the world concludes the book, and in this part much useful information is given as to the more important animals characteristic of each region.

The book is especially valuable in that it does not confuse the reader by a multiplicity of details, or leave him to choose between a variety of methods. The simplest and most effective appliances are alone recommended, and the great experience of the writer in the preservation and mounting of animals renders his advice on these points of the greatest value. The introductory chapter gives good outlines of the bodies and skeletons of the chief types of large mammalia, with the vital spots marked on each, so as to guide the sportsman in killing his game.

We only notice a single point which appears to call for correction in a future edition. The use of the blow-pipe is recommended for killing small birds, and it is described as a tube of metal or wood about 3 feet long and $\frac{3}{4}$ -inch in diameter, through which pellets of clay may be propelled by the breath. Such an instrument would be of very little use, and we doubt whether any ordinary person could propel a ball of clay of this size with sufficient velocity to kill any bird at ten yards off. For using clay pellets, the bore should not exceed $\frac{3}{8}$, or at utmost, $\frac{1}{2}$ -inch diameter, and the length had better be 6 or 8 feet than 3. The blow-pipes used in South America are usually 8 or 10 feet long, and under $\frac{1}{4}$ -inch bore, and with these, light arrows can be propelled so as to kill birds on lofty trees, while with clay pellets, humming-birds are easily killed at more moderate distances.

The book is strongly and tastefully bound, and should be the companion of every sportsman and naturalist about to visit foreign countries.

A. R. W.

Diagrams of Insects Injurious to Farm Crops; suitable for Elementary Schools. Prepared by Miss E. A. Ormerod, Honorary Consulting Entomologist to the Royal Agricultural Society of England.

A SERIES of six large diagrams as follows, issued by the Society:—Large White Cabbage Butterfly, Turnip Fly, or Flea (the prospectus writes "Flee") Beetle, Beet Fly, Wire Worm and Click Beetle, Hop Aphis or Green Fly, with Ladybird, Daddy Long-legs or Crane-fly. These diagrams seem admirably adopted for the purpose intended, and are accompanied by short explanations, including remedial prescriptions. In her scientific names Miss Ormerod puts the cart before the horse, by reversing the order of things, and making the lesser include the greater. When she indicates *Agriotes* (*Elatér*) *lineatus*, *Phyllotreta* (*Haltica*) *nemorum*, and *Phorodon* (*Aphis*) *humuli*, she means that the parenthetical generic term is the larger and older, and that the preceding one is a later creation by those dreadful specialists; but she does not say so.

Manuel d'Electrometrie Industrielle. Par R. V. Picou (Paris: G. Masson, 1882.)

THIS is one of the many books which owe their appearance to the recent rapid growth of the electrical industries; and may not be inappropriately termed a treatise on electric measurements, only a very small section being however devoted to electro-chemical quantities. The work begins with the ordinary laboratory processes of testing resistance, electromotive force, and strength of currents, &c. The latter half of the book deals with the practical application of such tests to the measurement of the electromotive force, resistance, &c., of batteries and dynamo-electric generators. Under the latter head the methods of MM. Pollard and Cabanellas are expounded. The author does not appear to be acquainted with the recent testing instruments invented by Professors Ayrton and Perry, nor those of Sir W. Thomson, which present many advantages over the instruments described by the author. There are several glaring defects in the work of too important a nature to be passed over. The author gives instructions for making up resistance coils without saying a word about the necessity of winding them so as to avoid self-induction, and as he cautions the reader to use a simple key in testing with Wheatstone's bridge he cannot be aware of the substantial reasons which exist for the use of the British Association key with double-successive contact. As the author professes to follow the British Association in its system of units he ought not to write "dyne = gramme-masse," because that is exactly what the dyne is not. He ought also to know that the statement he makes on p. 132 respecting the efficiency of electromotors, that the useful work is a maximum when the back-electromotive force is equal to half the electromotive force of the generator is not true, and does not refer to maximum efficiency but to maximum rate of using up power. Students will find the books on kindred subjects by Kempe and Day of much more use than the manual of M. Picou.

The Falls of Niagara and other Famous Cataracts. By G. W. Holley. Illustrations. (London: Hodder and Stoughton, 1882.)

THE bulk of this volume is devoted to Niagara, concerning which Mr. Holley has brought together a great deal of information on its history, geology, and local history and incidents, two-thirds of the space being occupied with the last section. The information seems to us in the main correct, though much of the miscellaneous matter included under local history and incidents is of trivial

importance. The space devoted to the other "Cata-racts" of the world is small, though most of the important ones are mentioned. The illustrations are good, and on the whole the book is interesting.

LETTERS TO THE EDITOR

[The Editor does not hold himself responsible for opinions expressed by his correspondents. Neither can he undertake to return, or to correspond with the writers of, rejected manuscripts. No notice is taken of anonymous communications.]

[The Editor urgently requests correspondents to keep their letters as short as possible. The pressure on his space is so great that it is impossible otherwise to ensure the appearance even of communications containing interesting and novel facts.]

Priestley and Lavoisier

IF Mr. Rodwell had anything new to tell us about Lavoisier, there would have been a sufficient motive for his writing; but I do not see what useful purpose is gained by telling us what was already known, namely, that a century ago Lavoisier rendered many important services to science; or, what was not so well known, namely, that chemistry is a French science; or, that Lavoisier was "the most generous of men," "incapable of any meanness." The real question Mr. Rodwell himself asks:—"Upon what authority does Dr. Thomson assert that Dr. Priestley informs us that he prepared the gas in M. Lavoisier's house in Paris, and showed him the method of procuring it in the year 1774?"

Mr. Rodwell quotes from Thomson's notice of Priestley; had he turned to that of Lavoisier (p. 105, vol. ii. 1831, not 1830), he would have found an answer:—"Dr. Priestley discovered oxygen in August, 1774, and he informs us in his life [this ought to be "Life," i.e. autobiography] that in the autumn of that year he went to Paris and exhibited to Lavoisier, in his own laboratory, the mode of obtaining oxygen gas by heating red oxide of mercury in a gun-barrel, and the properties by which this gas is distinguished; indeed, the very properties which Lavoisier himself enumerates in his paper. [*Mem. Acad.* 1775, pub. 1778.] There can therefore be no doubt that Lavoisier was acquainted with oxygen gas in 1774, and that he owed his knowledge of it to Dr. Priestley."

Dr. Black complained of the publication of Lavoisier's papers without any allusion whatever to what he himself had previously done on the same subject. Cavendish complained of something more than a similar neglect. The facts, as stated in Dr. George Wilson's "Life of Cavendish," are briefly these:—Blagden went to Paris in June, 1783, and informed Lavoisier of the discovery of the composition of water. Lavoisier was incredulous, expressing his opinion that the union of the two gases (O and H) would produce, not water, but an acid. Nevertheless he repeated Cavendish's experiment on a large scale; and in his account of it to the Academy on June 25, stated that the conclusion as to the compound nature of water was drawn by Laplace and himself. The charge brought against Lavoisier by Cavendish, Blagden, and Watt, was summed up by Watt to this effect, that after Lavoisier had had the theory of the composition of water explained to him, "he invented it himself."

Mr. Rodwell "utterly denies" that the acceptance of Lavoisier's doctrine was mainly due to Cavendish's discovery. A strong objection to the oxygen theory was advanced by Berthollet and others, founded on the observation that in the action of dilute acids on metals inflammable air is produced. [The inflammable air of Cavendish, in 1766, was referred not to water, but to the metals]. Whence came this element? The discovery of the composition of water answered the objection, and converted it, as Dr. Whewell remarks, into an argument in favour of the theory.

My statement that "the compound is always equal to the sum of its elements" was already known, was elicited by a remark of Lavoisier's, quoted by Mr. Rodwell:—"I am obliged in this reasoning to suppose that the weight of the bodies employed was the same after the observation as before." My statement is new to Mr. Rodwell, and he calls for references. Many of the old writers on the idea of substance acknowledged the proposition, and its best application was Wenzel's doctrine of definite and reciprocal proportions, although its full significance did not become apparent until the aeriform elements were also taken into account.

But to return to Priestley, I am bound to admit that 1744

is a mistake into which I was misled by Whewell ("His. Ind. Sci., 1857, iii. 110), who gives that date.

Priestley was presented with the Royal Society's Copley medal, as an honourable testimony to his numerous scientific discoveries, which, considering the crude state of chemistry in his time, must be regarded as admirable. He was afterwards driven from the Royal Society and from his country, his house was pillaged, and his library, manuscripts, and apparatus destroyed, and all this persecution was on account of certain opinions which happily are now widely spread. The statue at Birmingham is a less impressive tribute to his memory than the maintenance of respect for his fame; and it is with no unfriendly feeling towards Mr. Rodwell that I express an opinion that this old quarrel between Lavoisier, Priestley, and Cavendish had better be left to repose in the history of science, where it has been discussed with sufficient fulness and fairness by such writers as Thomson, Brande, Whewell, and George Wilson.

Highgate, N., December 4

C. TOMLINSON

The Forth Bridge

IN some remarks made in *NATURE*, vol. xxvii. p. 101, by Mr. Charles Shaler Smith, the following passage occurs:—"The tests of the last few years show conclusively, that iron exposed to compression within its buckling limit is compacted in texture and strengthened by such use while, if subjected to continuous tension beyond two-thirds of its elastic limit, it is attenuated and weakened." As I think that the words above quoted may perhaps to a certain extent mislead those who have not themselves made experiments on the elasticity of iron and steel, and on the alteration of density which can be produced by compression or extension, I would observe:—

1. That the increase of density which can be produced by compressing within the buckling-limit such rods as may be employed in the construction of bridges, would certainly not account for the strengthening of iron exposed to continuous compression. I have examined carefully the alteration of density which can be effected in iron and steel wires by longitudinal extension, &c., and even in cases where the wire was strained to breakage, and the permanent extension exceeded 20 per cent., there was no diminution of density equal to 1 per cent. Of course the words "compacted texture" may not mean that the density is increased, but the idea seems to be not uncommon among engineers, that increase of strength necessarily implies increase of density. Though I cannot at this moment lay hands upon it, I remember reading an account of some theories advanced respecting the hardening of steel, from which it was evident that the author of these theories assumed that the hardening is attended with increase of density, whereas the density of steel can be more diminished by this process than by any mechanical means with which I am acquainted.

2. It is quite true that iron, if subjected to continuous tension beyond two-thirds of its elastic limit, is attenuated, but whether the attenuation is attended with weakening or not depends largely upon the manner in which the tension is applied. If the latter is increased by small amounts at a time, and each amount allowed to act for a few hours before any increase of stress is made, not only is there comparatively small permanent extension, but there may be an actual increase of strength as far as resistance to extension is concerned. The fact is that whether we subject iron and steel to long-continued compression or extension, we increase the resistance to compression and extension respectively, mainly for the same reason, namely, that we give time for the molecules of the metal to take up such positions as will enable them to offer the maximum resistance. Thus I have proved that the value of "Young's Modulus" is considerably increased in the case of an iron wire which has suffered permanent extension, by allowing the wire to rest for some hours either loaded or unloaded; this increase of elasticity is not attended with any appreciable increase of density.

As I feel that too much precaution cannot be taken in a question of this kind, where life is at stake, I would venture to make the following suggestion:—That bars or rods of steel and iron which run the slightest risk of having at any time to undergo a considerable extending or compressing stress should before use be subjected, if possible, to the same kind of stress gradually increased in amount with intervals of some hours between each increase until a stress equal to at least three-fourths of the breaking-stress be reached. Three or four days would suffice to bring the metal to its maximum strength, both as regards resistance to permanent and to temporary strain.